

BULLETIN
OF THE
DEPARTMENT
OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL
PRINCIPALS
OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATION
ASSOCIATION

Issued Five Times a Year
January, March, April, May, and October

APRIL, 1929

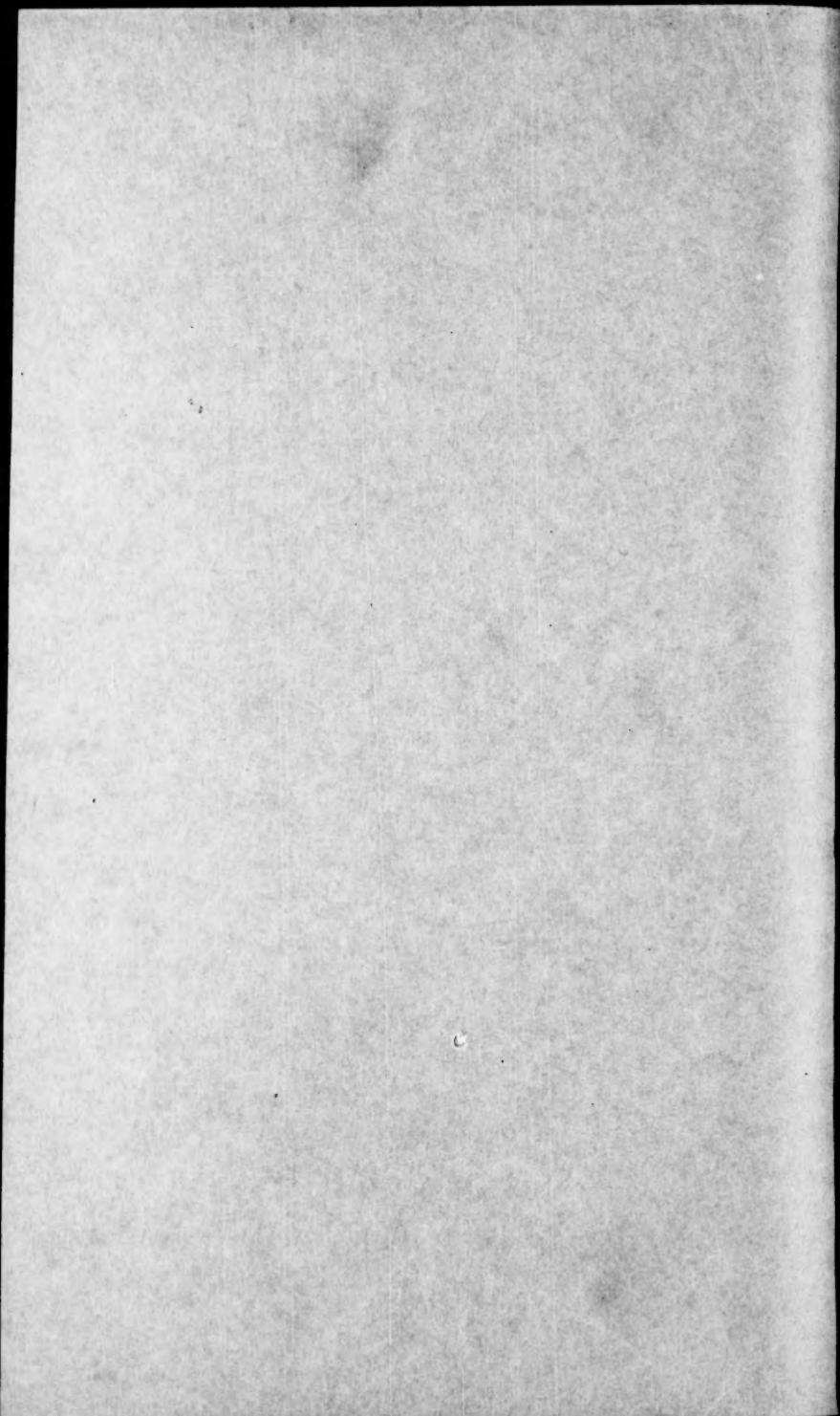
Entered as second-class matter, December 29, 1925, at the post office at Berwyn, Illinois, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage, provided for in Section 412, Act of February 28, 1925, authorized March 30, 1927.

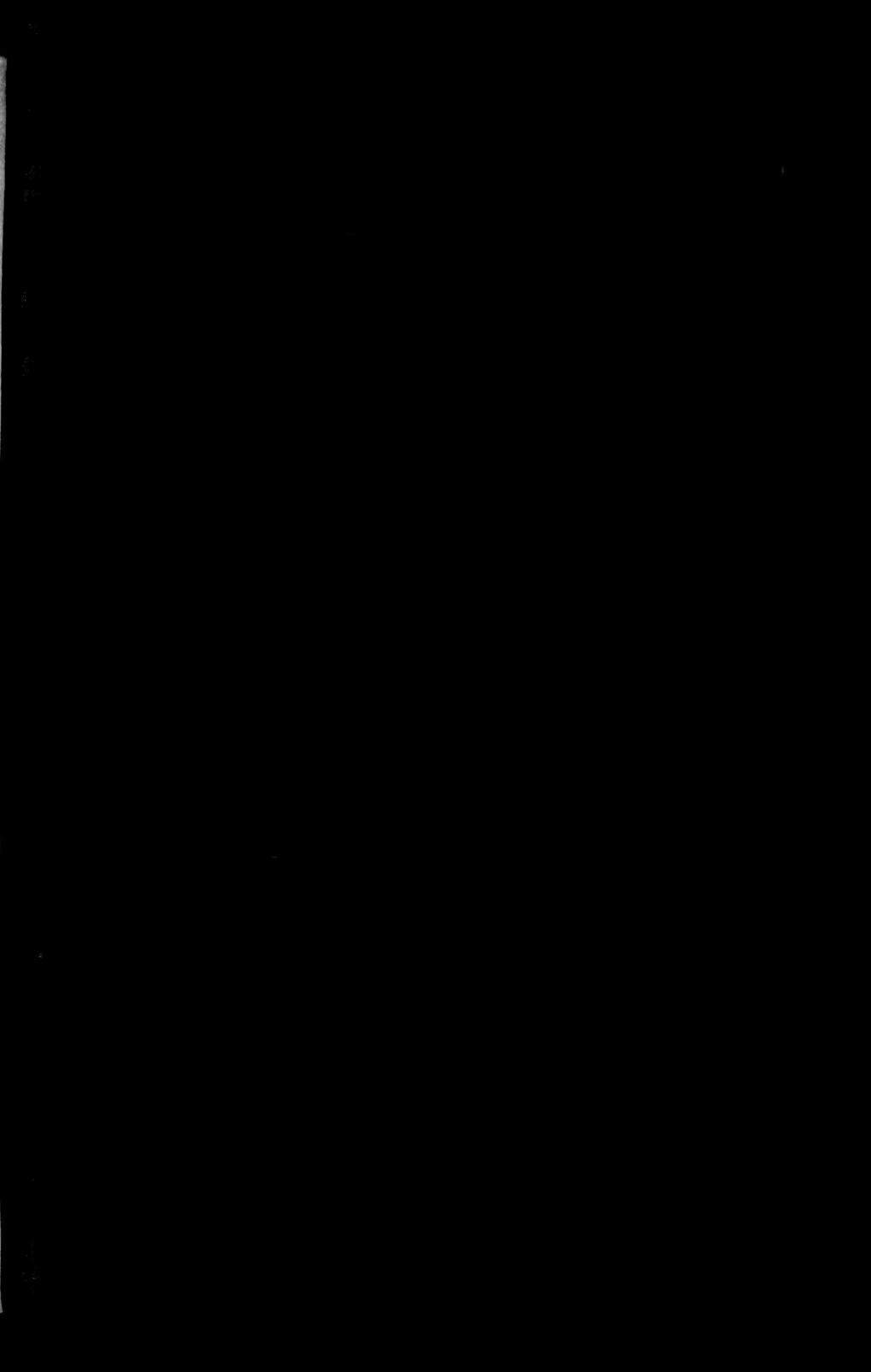
BULLETIN NUMBER 26

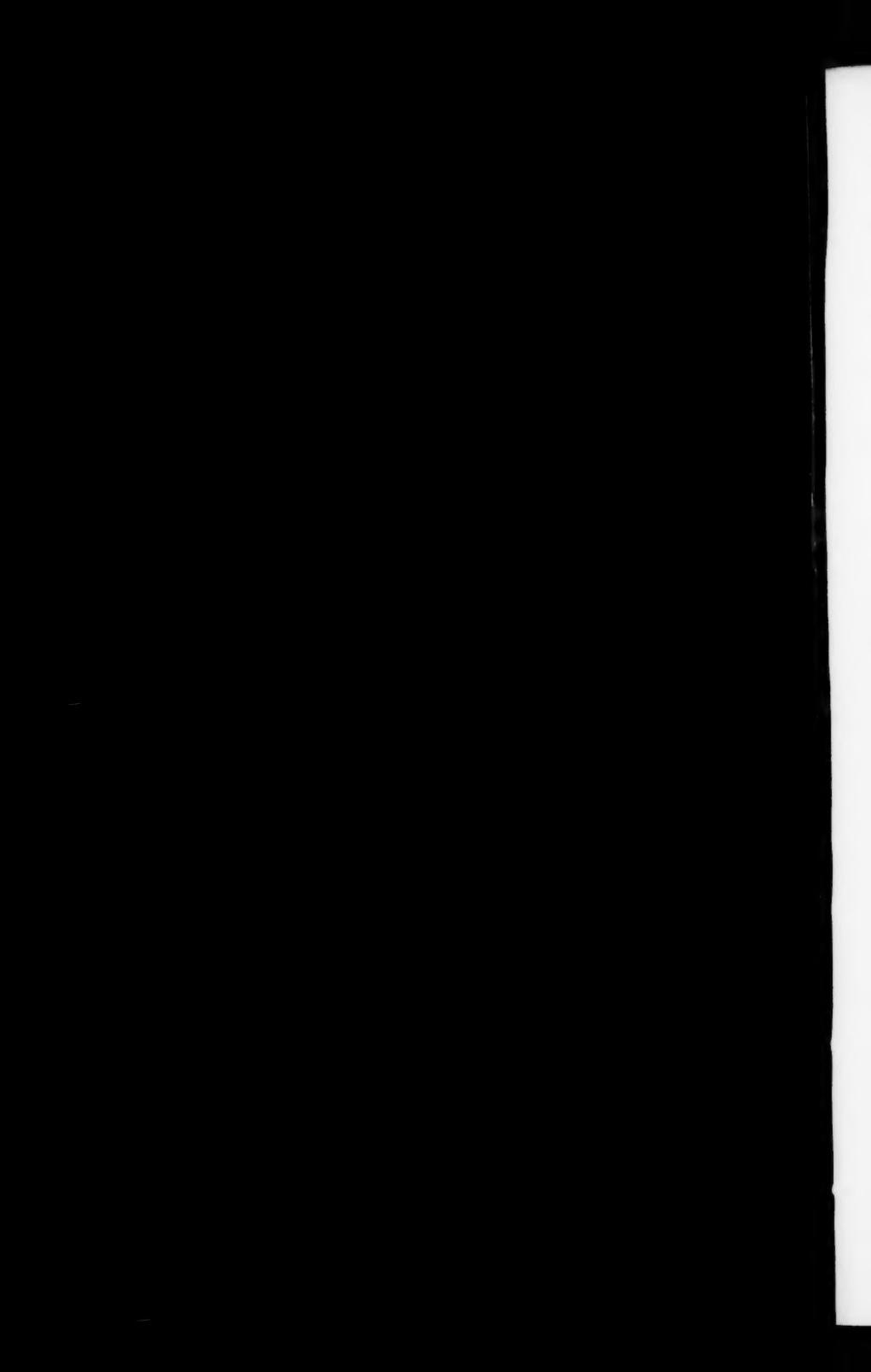
Secondary-School Administration
Abstracts

THE DEPARTMENT OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

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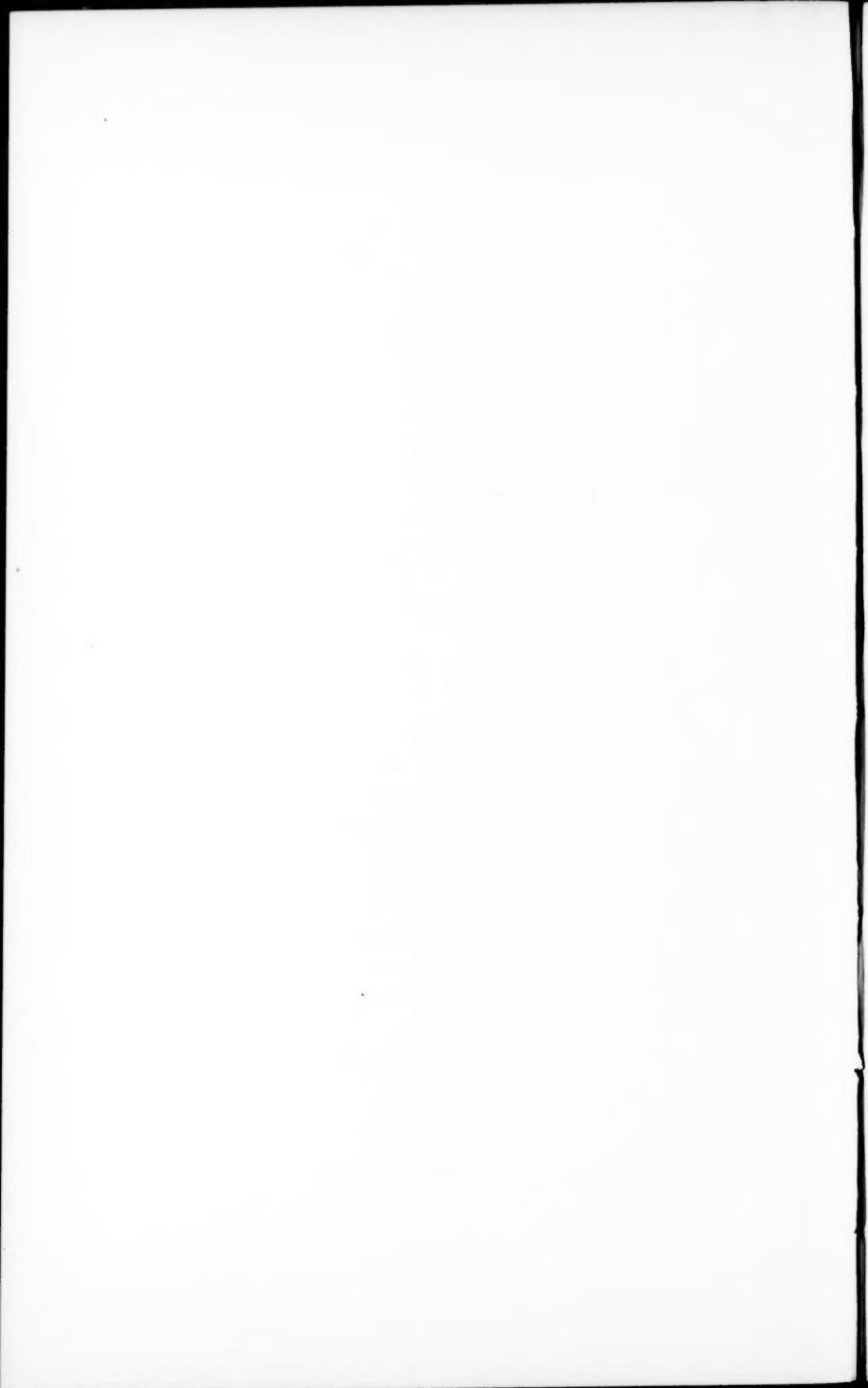
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SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION
ABSTRACTS

Published under the direction of the
Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National
Education Association with the co-operation
of the Judd Club

The Judd Club is a group of principals of the high schools
of the suburbs of Chicago who meet once a month during the
scholastic year for dinner and the evening with Charles H. Judd,
Director of the School of Education of the University of Chicago.
At the meetings administrative problems of the secondary school
are discussed.

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These abstracts are free to all members of the Department of
Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association.

ABSTRACTS BOOKS

JORDAN, RIVERDA HARDING. *Extra-Classroom Activities in Elementary and Secondary Schools.* New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1928. Pp. 302.

The purpose of this book is to emphasize the importance of unity in the extra-curriculum activity program from the elementary school through the senior high school. The author gives as his reason for this purpose that during the impressionable years in the elementary school and junior high school the seeds are planted for proper conduct in the senior high school period. Extra-curriculum activities are defined as: "Those voluntary tasks which are carried on by pupils in addition to the regular classroom requirements either after school hours or at a time within the program especially designed for such purposes and may be, in effect, semi-curriculum."

The values of such activities are moral, social, intellectual, civic, vocational, physical, and aesthetic. The motives actuating participation of pupils in extra-curriculum activities are the desire to escape from classroom routine, the "play motif," the desire to do something spontaneously, the social urge, the desire for personal distinction, and altruism — the desire to do "something for the school." The groupings of extra-curriculum activities are semi-curriculum as dramatics, publications, athletics, and musical organizations; departmental, as French clubs or art clubs; civic welfare, as student councils and traffic squads; hobby, as camera and stamp clubs; society, as class organizations and banquets; and auxiliaries, as Boy Scouts and the Hi-Y Club.

The direction and control should be guided by the basic values to be realized. Supervision may vary from merely casual oversight to a careful systematic piece of instructional work. In several chapters the author shows how various extra-curriculum activity programs for the twelve grades may be organized and supervised.

In the primary grades entertainments and dramatics may assume the form of pageants growing out of classroom work and having a central theme. The junior high school, as a transitional period between the elementary and the senior high school, may present more elaborate programs, possibly one-act plays, before the assembly or the parent-teacher association. The desire of the senior high school pupil is to imitate the professional. The values of the school play are the building of better standards of theatrical expression, understanding the real meaning of the drama as an interpretation of life, and improvement in poise, self-expression and voice. The school assembly is a powerful instrument in the hands of the wise principal. Assemblies should be carefully planned with

such objectives in view as pupil participation and responsibility and avoidance of routine programs and procedures. The school itself through its dramatics and other activities may furnish a greater part of the programs.

Whether in elementary or high school, some sort of publication is a stimulating force in a school. In the lower grades, the paper should be a simple sheet, probably issued bi-weekly. In the junior high, the newspaper should be a part of the English work. In the senior high school, it should be produced by the journalism classes in order to insure proper standards. While a frequently issued publication, such as the newspaper, is usually more effective than the annual, the annual, if wisely controlled, may serve as a good history of the school. The handbook has come to occupy a very important place, and if sponsored by the student body, will carry more weight with the pupils than if it issues from the faculty.

The author takes the position that any plan of pupil government should be limited at first and gradually extended as the pupils are ready for wider responsibility. Bands and orchestras are quickeners of school spirit as well as advertising mediums of real value. Clubs and societies provide for the expression of the gregarious traits of children, encourage the development of special interests and worthy projects and supplement the classroom. Societies which have as their specific purpose the meeting of social needs are the class organization, the home room, dancing clubs, and the like. The fraternity is still a problem in many of the large high schools.

If one wants to know the soundness or weakness of a school, he should examine its athletics. The athletics of a school can never be right unless the controlling power is right. The controlling power is usually the principal. A successful system of athletics develops the physical body, courage, better health habits, ideals of fair play, unselfishness, honesty, self-control, and loyalty. Types of contests should be suited to the physical strength of the pupils who participate.

As a final contribution, the author discusses the problem of extent of participation in extra-curriculum activities. A carefully planned program offers an opportunity for extending the field of guidance. Undue participation and non-participation alike should be met by the advisory system of the school, with the all-around development of the pupil in view.

MORT, PAUL R. "*The Individual Pupil in the Management of Class and School.*" New York: American Book Co., 1928. Pp. 383.

Individual needs arise from individual differences and social requirements. In attempting to care for individual differences social implications must not be neglected. "Each pupil should be trained to take the most effective part of which he is capable in the groups of which he is to be a member." The ultimate goal of education is

to secure for each individual the highest development for happy and successful living in our modern society. The discovery of individual needs should be attempted through analyses of the child from every standpoint. Data secured through intelligence, physical and achievement tests and measurements need to be interpreted and such interpreted materials need to be combined with social information to determine the grade placement of the individual child. The author uses case studies with extensive illustrative materials, as concrete examples of the methods of dealing with individuals. Placement in junior and senior high schools is treated as a problem distinct from earlier grade placement. Acceleration is recommended as desirable for many individuals. Three possible means of acceleration in secondary schools are presented: (1) a normal number of subjects with adjusted assignments in one or more subjects; (2) more than the normal number of subjects with the ordinary type of work in each; (3) the normal number of subjects, but with one or more of these subjects covered at such a rate that more than a normal unit of the ordinary work is given in a term. Non-promotion and demotion are often unrelated to real achievement. "The standard percentage of failure should be *zero*, and every teacher should feel called upon to explain, in terms of the failure of the school in placing the individual, the failure of a pupil to do his best, or in terms of his own instruction the cause of the failure of any pupil." Chief among the problems which the classroom teacher meets are those of: (1) coaching pupils, (2) enriching the programs of bright pupils who are not given a special promotion, (3) caring for the make-up work demanded for pupils who receive special promotions, and (4) making up deficiencies in previous training. "It is rare, indeed, that a teacher can afford to assume that he can develop a plan, entirely out of his training and experience, for handling a group of children without consideration of the individuals who are to be subjects of instruction." Variation in assignments, in amounts of drill material required, in amounts of content material, and in supplementary projects are essential to efficient classroom procedure if individual progress is to be a measure of efficiency. The teachers of one large city listed eighty-five possible individual adjustments. In recent years, visiting teachers, vocational counselors, psychologists, psychiatrists, deans of girls, and directors of research and guidance have been added to the educational staff to assist with various phases of individual needs but "even in those school systems that have developed staff departments for leadership and coordination, the responsibility for carrying out the suggested plans and adapting them to the individual schools falls upon the individual principals." In the years of secondary education, the broadening of offerings in the school curriculum furnishes a fruitful source for variation. Ability grouping gives opportunity for adjustment (1) in time, (2) in subject matter, (3) in method, and (4) in pupil programs, but does not of itself guarantee any of these adjustments. Individual in-

struction emphasizes mastery as the goal in certain schools: "Is every assignment a teacher devises of sufficient importance to demand absolute mastery?" Individual instruction gives an opportunity for acceleration to individual pupils but in no way differentiates between those who should and who should not be accelerated.

HOLLINGWORTH, LETA S. *The Psychology of the Adolescent*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1928. Pp. 259.

Conventional treatises on adolescence are usually expressed in language which because of its scientific nature fails to impress the layman or the average teacher. In this book, the author has addressed the average parent or teacher. In doing so she has in no way detracted from the significance of the book. The story is well told and references to scientific experimentation of recent years strengthen the case. An appendix exhibits graphic findings of investigations which are pertinent to the discussion in the main text. Footnote documentation directs the reader to sources upon which outstanding statements are based. Further readings on specific phases of adolescence are suggested in the appendix. The author wrote with the evident intention of holding the reader's interest by making the narrative continuous, while at the same time offering an opportunity for reference to authority on many points at issue. The eight chapters are entitled: (1) What is Adolescence?; (2) Public Ceremonies; (3) Psychological Weaning; (4) Seeking Self-Support; (5) Mating; (6) Achieving a Point of View; (7) Finding the Self; and (8) Meaning of Maturity. The second chapter is largely historical and traces the development of socially initiating the adolescent into adulthood. The chapter on "Psychological Weaning" is not only the most original but also the most significant part of the treatise. The author declares that many of the difficulties in social adjustment encountered by adolescents are a direct result of the lack of psychological weaning or of the attainment of self sufficiency on the part of the growing child. Parents in their anxiety for the welfare of their children often interfere with success later in life, through hindering normal development of independence and responsibility in the children. In the chapter on "Mating," the author discusses such matters as what characterizes an attractive youth, courtship, and sex education. She insists that "the first principle of mental hygiene in relation to sex is that of enlightenment" and that another principle is that of "habitual contact with reality." When the author discusses the individual's place in the universe under the heading of "Achieving a Point of View," one has a feeling that something is lacking, a feeling of too much pessimism. The statement that "the unknowable is, however, likely to be extremely painful, especially for the emotionally immature person, whose intelligence is well developed at an early age" sounds more like the harking back of the adult rather than the philosophy of youth. Maturity should find the individual an adequate adult by which "we mean *adequate for life under conditions of culture*." "The major persistent problems of adolescence are,—to get away

from the family, to achieve self-support, to develop a heterosexual attitude, to formulate a point of view on life. When all these major adjustments have been successfully managed, the adolescent has achieved psychological adulthood. He has attained emotional maturity. "He has arrived at a condition of self-control and of self-possession, unified and wholesome." The author has endeavored to carry her discussion of the development of the child from the pre-adolescent stage to the stage of the mature individual. Her closing statement is "Many failures could almost certainly be averted if all of the essential major adjustments which we have described could be carried out under enlightened guidance rather than under the conditions of blind struggle which at present so largely prevails."

FONTAINE, E. CLARKE. *Ways to Better Teaching in the Secondary School.* Boston: Ginn and Co., 1928. Pp. 271.

True teaching is not mere lesson hearing. Testing the pupils' preparation should occupy in general less than a fourth of the recitation; development and assignment of new work should follow occupying nearly half of the time; and directed study of the advance assignment should take the rest. For this a sixty minute recitation is best. The above proportion of time cannot be allotted every day. Sometimes the whole period may be required for testing; but in general, forward-looking work should be given by far the larger part of the class time. Professor H. C. Morrison's five-step procedure is favored:

- (1) *Exploration*, to find out what students know of the unit of instruction;
- (2) *Presentation*, wherein the teacher shows what is involved in the unit;
- (3) *Assimilation* of the material by well directed study in class and out, guided by outlines and references;
- (4) *Organization*, or outlining of the unit independent of books and helps; and
- (5) *Recitation*.

With the younger students it has been found helpful to break up the longer units for assimilation, and to spend more time from day to day in class discussion. Much failure in teaching results from the lack of well defined aims or objectives. Much planning is necessary to realize the aims. Lesson plans should proceed from the known to the related unknown, and the inductive method of arriving at rules, laws, and definitions should be used even in language study. That part of the class period given to directed study should enable the teacher to give instruction in the proper technique of study applicable to the work in hand. There is a long chapter of model lessons in mathematics, the languages, English, science and the social sciences to show concretely ways to better teaching in all these secondary school subjects.

MAGAZINES

CHAMBERS, M. M. "*The Junior College and the 'Scholarly Amateur,'*" School and Society, XXVIII (October 27, 1928), 519-21.

Professor George Herbert Palmer said recently, "The junior college, if generally established, will tend to extirpate the 'scholarly amateur' in American life." The author of this article disagrees with the view, and believes that the general establishment of the junior college will not sound the death knell of the standard American four-year liberal arts college, but will actually be the harbinger of a more fortunate situation. Four reasons in support of this conclusion are here outlined: First, the long-established, well-endowed, liberally supported four-year colleges have so unshakable a hold upon thousands of alumni and former students that they could confidently expect to continue to prosper for generations. Second, there is an increasing tendency for the professions of law, medicine, the ministry, education, and business in their higher ranges to regard at least four years of liberal arts study as desirable or even prerequisite for entrance upon purely professional study. Third, the level of general prosperity in America is so high that there will probably continue to be a substantial number of people who can afford four years of liberal arts study and who will secure it at four-year colleges of their preference. Fourth, the four-year liberal arts colleges now labor under a situation which makes it difficult for them to maintain desired standards of work, on account of the preponderance of underclassmen in their total enrolment. From this situation, the junior college movement will certainly operate to relieve them to some extent. If the junior college will care for the many students who do not have the ability, be it mental, financial, or what not, to complete the four-year course, and the many others who may have the ability but for various reasons do not want more than two years of study in the liberal arts, the situation of the four-year college will be definitely better. The four-year college will then be able to lay more emphasis upon the advanced portions of their work, to the benefit of its standing as an institution and to the enhancement of the quality of its service to society. By assuming a large part of the burden of this selective function, the junior college will usher in a brighter day for the four-year college, and multiply and improve the "scholarly amateur."

HUSBAND, RICHARD W. "*The Reliability of the Thorndike Intelligence Examination,*" School and Society, XXVIII (October 27, 1928), 521-22.

Recent mental tests have given very high reliabilities, many being over +.90. The Stanford revision of the Binet scale has a quoted reliability of +.93; the Stanford achievement test of +.98 for a single grade; the Otis self-administering of +.92. Such high

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figures are brought about by each item being carefully selected and tested and by longer tests than were formerly felt necessary. The Thorndike test is standardized on a very homogeneous group. Practically every one taking it is a high-school senior and an applicant for the university entrance. Therefore, they are not only of the same age, but also of an equally high level of ability, and not a random sampling of that age. In contrast to this, the Binet scale was standardized on school children of all ages and of all mental abilities. Reliabilities are artificially raised by the age factor, or, taken conversely, are lowered by unusual homogeneity within the group. The reliability of +.75 for the Thorndike test obtained for a single age would probably be raised to over +.90 if computed for a large age-range with normal distribution of abilities within ages. Thus the simple coefficients of reliability are not the only features to be considered. The Thorndike test is far more educational in nature than many other intelligence examinations. It is more of a test of content learned in school than of native endowment. It may be regarded as somewhat in the nature of a final examination for the whole high-school course.

ORLEANS, JACOB S. and THOMPSON, HAROLD G. "The Text-book and Achievement in Latin," School and Society (November 3, 1928), 549-50.

In January, 1926, a survey of achievement in Latin was conducted in the public high schools of New York State, under the auspices of the New York State Department of Education. The survey covered the work of the first half year as outlined in the Latin syllabus of the State Department. The test consisted of eleven parts covering exhaustively all phases of the work required by the syllabus and there was nothing included in the test that was not included in the syllabus. Forty-seven schools in New York State participated in the survey. In all, over 2,500 pupils, just completing the work of the first half year, took the test. The conclusion was reached that it is not the text-book primarily but the teacher and her use of the text-book which play the most important part in determining the achievement of the students. A good teacher with a mediocre or perhaps even a poor text-book will probably obtain better results with a class than a poor teacher using a good text-book. The teacher using a text-book with an unusually effective method of presentation has a decided advantage over the equally good teacher using a book in which the material is not so effectively presented.

THORNDIKE, EDWARD L. "Curriculum Research," School and Society, XXVIII (November 10, 1928), 569-76.

Scientific research does not oppose or seek to supplant the observations and reflection of teachers or the combined wisdom of committees or the investigations of bureaus or the insights and theories of genius. It merely seeks to extend and improve the

observations, to discover more facts and better methods for committees and bureaus to use, and to check and test the theories. The scope of scientific study of the curriculum is very wide, including, substantially, everything about what is to be learned, everything about what use the learners are to make of it, and everything about how they learn it. As a new branch of science appears and grows, we need to know about it and what it may do for the curriculum. Since we are concerned with any existing or proposed content of the curriculum as something to be learned, we need to know how hard it is to learn, and what, if anything, must have been already learned as a basis or propaedeutic. The interest or attractiveness or appeal of any given experience or act of learning to specified groups of learners is a second fact which curriculum-makers need to know about each of the elements of content from which they have to choose. Scientific workers have been busy accumulating facts and testing the opinions of practitioners and theorists. A primary factor in evaluating any curriculum or any features thereof is the changes which are actually produced in pupils by it. Educational book-keeping is no longer one-sided. Educational tests and measurements are used in the discovery of individual differences, in diagnosis, in placement, in measurements of the comparative value of certain selections of subject-matter or methods of instruction, and in other ways. Educational products depend more largely on the individual learner than has been thought. In its actual day-by-day details, the content of the curriculum is dependent upon our ideas of children's minds. Learning and the learner cannot usefully be divorced. The particular steps by which we attain a certain ultimate aim of the curriculum will vary enormously according to our psychology. The changes wrought in the actual details of the curriculum during the last generation have been in every large measure due to the psychological researches on mental discipline and on individual differences. The psychologist's researches have been beneficial in forcing curriculum makers in all subjects to provide content that is of intrinsic value. The curriculum has been specialized in many ways for the dull and for the gifted, for the sturdy and for the frail, for the matter-of-fact and for the artistic. A curriculum in operation is determined by methods as truly as by content. The more general and fundamental our researches concerning learning are, the more productive they will be in the end for the curriculum. The use of the scientific spirit and scientific methods in the study of the curriculum have performed and will perform useful service.

KAULFERS, WALTER. "*Intelligence of One Thousand Students of Foreign Languages*," School and Society, XXVIII (November 10, 1928), 597-99.

The results of a study of the intelligence of 1,002 students, distributed through eight semesters of Spanish in eighteen junior and senior high schools of San Diego and Los Angeles have shown that something is quite wrong with teachers' diagnoses of failures.

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Teachers have been citing lack of intelligence as a primary cause of failure in the foreign languages. This study shows that boys studying Spanish are superior in mentality to girls enrolled in the language; this is important when it is understood that the achievement of the masculine sex is definitely and consistently inferior in all semesters and in practically all phases of the class work, as measured both by teachers' grades and scores on standardized vocabulary and silent-reading tests. The high rate of mortality in Spanish may be due to faults in the teaching and organization of the courses rather than to deficiencies in the pupils themselves. The courses as now offered are not adequately adjusted to the abilities, interests, and capacities of the large majority of high-school pupils. To a large extent the blame can be traced directly to current methods of foreign language teaching. The still prevalent custom of relying upon formal grammar as the predominant medium of instruction would seem sufficient in itself to stifle interest and to discourage pupils from continuing foreign language work. It is only by means of a thorough reorganization both of the methods and materials of instruction, together with a more homogeneous ability grouping of pupils, that the prevalent high rate of pupil mortality can be reduced.

EDUCATIONAL EVENTS: Anonymous. "*High Schools of City and Country*," School and Society, XXVIII (November 17, 1928), 614.

From facts compiled by the Federal Bureau of Education, it appears that there are today in the United States 21,700 high schools. Reports have been received from 17,711 of these, of which 3,960, or 22.4 per cent. are urban high schools, that is, they are located in centers of 2,500 or more population; 13,751, or 77.6 per cent. are rural—located in centers of 2,500 or less in population. In the 13,751 rural high schools there are only 1,079,986 children, or 28.8 per cent. of the total high-school enrolment; in the 3,960 urban high schools, there are 2,662,364 children, or 71.2 per cent. of the total enrolment. While 52.8 per cent., or more than half, of all the children between 15 and 18 years of age live in rural territory, only 25.7 per cent. of them are enrolled in the rural high schools; whereas 71.1 per cent. of the children of this age-group living in urban centers are enrolled in urban high schools. The school term is much shorter in rural than in urban schools. It is estimated that more than 18 of every 100 children 15 to 18 years of age in urban areas continue their education beyond the high school, while only 7.2 of every 100 children of the same age-group in rural areas seek further educational preparation. In the rural high schools there is not much differentiation of the curriculum.

KAULFERS, WALTER. "*The Prognostic Value of General Language*." School and Society, XXVIII (November 24, 1928), 662-64.

A comparative study of the relationship between pupil achievement in general language and foreign language was made in the

Woodrow Wilson Junior High School, San Diego, California, in order to establish the prognostic value of general language on objective fact, and not merely on subjective opinion. The data of the investigation are the final grades earned in general language by 186 pupils during the fall term, 1927, and the end-semester marks received by the same students in the first half year of Spanish, French, and Latin during the spring term, 1928. The girls were found slightly to excel the boys in achievement. The work of the boys seemed somewhat more irregular, indicating perhaps that interest in foreign language is relatively more variable among boys than among girls. The better male students, however, occasionally excel even the best pupils of the opposite sex. The girls do better in the regular courses than in the exploratory-try-out classes, and the boys in general do worse. Teachers' marks in general language are no more certain predictive measures for foreign language than ordinary intelligence quotients, and appreciably less accurate than simple grades in English. Thus, the general language work can scarcely be justified on its exploratory-guidance merits.

WHITE, H. ADELBERT. "*Debating in our High Schools*," School and Society, XXVIII (November 24, 1928), 660-62.

A questionnaire, designed to study the organization, popularity, and results of debating in the high schools, was sent out to the extension division or some other agency in all the states of the union. The results in the main were as follows: (1) Most high schools have a high-school debate league or association with headquarters at the state university, and with officers chosen in part from the high schools participating. Extension divisions in thirteen states organize the high schools into various groups or districts. (2) The types of questions that have proved most suitable for debates are political, national, economic, and social. (3) The propositions for debate are chosen in various ways: in referendum of the participating schools, by a committee of high-school teachers, by a committee of officers, and so on. (4) The championship of the state is determined in eighteen of the states submitting replies by some type of elimination contest by districts, counties, or conferences, and then the winners proceed to some central point, usually to the state university, for a final championship tournament. (5) The special methods used to increase the interest in debating among high-school pupils themselves vary. Eight different states offer rewards in the nature of prizes, wall-plaques or debate certificates; six give unusual newspaper publicity to debaters; five emphasize radio talks by the secretary of the state league; four mention enlisting the sympathy and cooperation of school officials. (6) The size of the audiences at the championship contests last year varied from 100 to 4,000. Since most of the championship teams appeared before audiences away from home, it seems that a considerable number of the persons who heard debates were attracted not by friendship for the speakers, but by interest in the

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debates as contests or in the subjects discussed. (7) Replies to the questionnaire indicated that no admission was charged for the championship contests. (8) Judges were most often chosen from the professional type of man; sometimes teachers, debate coaches, college professors, student intercollegiate debaters, or clergymen acted as judges. (9) Despite the apparent trend toward the use of one judge who is known to be well qualified by experience, the greater majority of states still use most often the three-judge plan of decision. (10) Many states comment on certain specific failures in the judging systems they have been using, viz., in getting persons comparatively free from bias, in getting school boards to finance debating or pay the travel expenses of judges, in getting judges to travel long distances, etc. (11) Only fourteen replied to the question, "If anything except the most simple rules are given to guide the judges, will they carry out the directions faithfully?" Seven said that judges will not follow rules carefully. Whether the high-school debaters are making much of an impression on their home communities can hardly be determined.

DAVIS, BURTON ELSWORTH. "*Group Insurance for Teachers*," School and Society, XXVIII (December 1, 1928), 682-83.

In the industrial world there are about three million people enrolled under the group-insurance plan. This plan holds two advantages for teachers: First, the advantage of protection are extended to all; and second, this form of insurance is cheaper than individually subscribed forms. School teachers are more than mere wage earners; they transmit the priceless heritage of the past, in knowledge, science, and ideals; they encourage open-mindedness necessary for invention and progress in all things which make for a more abundant life individually and collectively. Full devotion cannot be expected of teachers who are not protected either by salary or insurance from the stern visitations of misfortune to which man is still heir. A higher type of service could be counted on from teachers whose incomes were adequately protected against accident, sickness, and death losses.

RUSSELL, WILLIAM F. "*Quantity, Quality, and Economy in Education*," School and Society, XXVIII (December 8, 1928), 732-34.

Three popular demands are being made upon the American educational system: that the pupils be accommodated in greater numbers, that training of better quality be offered, and that there be greater economy in all public expenditures. The school and the college are already making efforts toward quantity production in response to the demand that many be educated. They are modifying their procedures so that many may be educated better. By giving quality in quantity they are serving the interests of economy; but the persistent demands for extended facilities, the criticism of American standards, and the call for reduced expenditures indicate that the problem is not yet solved and that much remains to be done.

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CARROLL, ROBERT P. "*What is Intelligence?*" School and Society, XXVIII (December 22, 1928), 792-93.

After juggling several unsatisfactory definitions of intelligence, the author defines intelligence as the ability to see things in their various relationships, to think complexly and coordinately in such a way as to produce a composite, or more or less unified reaction. Intelligence has its basis in neural capacity and may be defined as the coordinate functionship of related reaction groups. The degree or amount of one's intelligence is determined by his native capacity or neural complexity. It is inseparable from depth or breadth of comprehension.

GATES, A. I. "*Recent Advances in Educational Psychology,*" School and Society, XXIX (January 5, 1929), 1-8.

Educational endeavor is probably most definite and fruitful when it is guided by intelligible objectives. More and more the philosophy of education is becoming an outgrowth of science in the form of generalization and hypotheses, and more and more science is endeavoring to put into effect for purposes of appraisal the suggestions of philosophy. The prevailing philosophy emphasizes social usefulness as the objective of education and the utilization of natural interests and individual aptitudes of pupils as the means. The problem of determining what particular adjustments and resources are essential to a fruitful participation in life has, within recent years, led to scores of studies designed to ascertain precisely the uses to which specific facts and skills essential for constructive family, social, civic, and economic life are not provided for by existing educational agencies; on the other hand, much that is now taught satisfies no genuine need in the lives of most people. . . . Thorndike's studies indicate that the zenith of power for acquiring information, ideas, and the more subtle skills comes in the early twenties. The decade from twenty to thirty is superior to any other; the decade from thirty to forty is at least equal to the span from ten to twenty. . . . The problem now is not any longer how the teacher is to instruct and how the pupil is to study. The pupil's mind is no longer to be on study or learning. It is given to doing the things that the situation calls for, and learning is the result. . . . Our leaders in the field of measurement, if provided with reasonable financial resources, could, in a short time, devise useful tests of any known human ability, interest, appreciation, or special talent. . . . To achieve the objectives of education, it is necessary not only to determine the abilities, skills, habits, or inclinations a pupil now possesses, but also to predict the outcomes of future education. The school is really becoming "the greatest laboratory of democracy."

WALKER, MARY, and LASLETT, H. R. "*Time Expenditure by High-School Teachers,*" School and Society, XXIX (January 26, 1929), 131-32.

An investigation was made to find the amounts of time actually

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spent on their several activities by the teachers of a small high school, typical of hundreds throughout the United States. The teachers listed on charts the amount of time spent at each activity for each half day of the week. The average amount of time spent on strictly school work by each teacher in this school was eight hours and forty minutes; each teacher also spent an additional hour and forty minutes on extra-curriculum activities; each one spent also an additional hour and eight minutes on community work. Some of these teachers felt overworked. Some spent no time in making out lesson plans; some read no educational books or magazines; one did no general reading. Keeping a time budget enabled the teachers to see clearly whether they might safely assume new voluntary engagements or might convince others that additional demands on their time were unfair.

THOMAS, RUSSELL. "*Plan for the Study of the Unsupervised Reading of High-School Pupils*," School Review, XXXVI (September, 1928), 533-40.

The English department of the University of Chicago High School has a plan whereby a record of each pupil's unassigned reading is kept. The pupils are asked to record on white cards the reading done in class or completed as a part of class assignment. On buff cards of the same size the pupils record their leisure reading. Care is taken to stress the point that the keeping of this free-reading record is a voluntary act. No credit is given for it, and no penalty is given for failure to report it. Rightly so, the pupil's honesty is taken for granted. At the end of each English course, the reading records are filed in the English office. The voluntary record is then transcribed to a large master sheet which contains the cumulative voluntary reading for such period as the pupil has been in the school. Each book on the pupil's record is checked by a teacher as superior or inferior, which record in the long run provides a comprehensive account of the quantity, the breadth of interest, and the quality of reading done by any pupil during his high-school career. The values of this plan for the study of pupils' leisure reading are that instructors are able to know the tastes of their pupils more fully, and in the course of several semesters, the influence of the classroom work may be traced. Knowledge of this leisure reading is also of some value in assisting parents who become interested in their children's reading. Finally, such records of pupils' reading provides material for curriculum reorganization.

WHITNEY, FREDERICK L. "*Present Standards for Junior Colleges*," School Review, XXXVI (October, 1928), 593-603.

In general, a junior college is an institution offering two years of college work beyond the usual high-school level. The most inclusive attitude with regard to organization is that the junior college should be located in a school district maintaining a high school and warranting the expectation of an enrolment adequate for proper development of the institution. Regular inspection by a repre-

sentative of an accrediting agency or of the state university or of the state board of education is usually required, and regular reports are properly filed. The leading accrediting agency is usually the state university, and accrediting is, as a rule, in terms of specified courses. The entrance requirements to a junior college are usually the same as the entrance requirements of the state university, which in most cases are fifteen units. The curriculum should be equivalent to that in the first and second years of a standard college and that the college year should not be shorter. The usual requirement for the teaching staff is that there shall be four full-time instructors or five instructors giving the major part of their time. Many accrediting agencies require of all instructors a master's degree completed or actively in process. Student work shall be organized on a college basis rather than on a high-school level. The American Association of Junior Colleges suggests that the maximum load be eighteen hours a semester. A total of sixty semester hours is the prevailing requirement for graduation. In many states an Associate of Arts degree is permitted. Some junior colleges have arrangements with the state department of education whereby a certificate to teach may be awarded upon graduation. The aim is to have all student records on a high level of efficiency and in conformity with the better practices of higher institutions. The two national and the two regional standardizing agencies place the safe minimum annual operating income at \$20,000.

BRIGGS, THOMAS H. "Sarcasm," School Review, XXXVI (November, 1928), 685-95.

The word "sarcasm" is derived from the Greek verb "to tear flesh." Pupils consider that the teacher who uses sarcasm intends to be bitter, stinging, and spiteful; that he is unsympathetic and sneering, taking advantage of his position or training to inflict mental punishment by belittling a pupil with intent to hurt. Sarcasm often emanates from wit, as well as from the chronically bad disposition. If sarcasm is intentional, it usually reveals in a teacher a state of mind that makes effective teaching difficult. Sometimes a teacher intentionally uses sarcasm because he feels himself not wholly master of the situation. Sarcasm encourages impudence on the part of the pupil as a means of defense. Ideal teaching invites spontaneity and cooperation, but sarcasm inhibits the former and makes the latter difficult. To meet the situation the evils of sarcasm may be discussed with individual teachers or at a faculty meeting. Young teachers may be encouraged to know their pupils in a thorough manner. Teachers may be made aware of the intellectual limitations of their pupils and conscious of the feeling-attitudes set up in pupils towards teachers. If a teacher has the habit of sarcasm, he may be shown in conference verbatim reports of what he has said.

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BOOTH, JOHN M. "*An Investigation in Interscholastic Athletics in Northwestern High Schools*," School Review XXXVI (November, 1928), 696-706.

This investigation covered practically every high school in Washington, Oregon, Idaho, and Montana having fifty or more pupils. Three hundred ten questionnaires were returned. Seventy-three per cent of the schools include games for girls in their interscholastic programs, but the amount of participation by girls decreases with the increase in the size of the school. Eighty-eight per cent of the principals do not believe that the program of intramural sports will ever displace the interscholastic sports; sixty-one per cent. that the championship programs are carried too far; sixty-six per cent. that state football championships should be discontinued; thirty-one per cent. that basketball championships should be discontinued; and only twenty-six per cent. that state track meets should be discontinued. Ill feeling as the result of athletic contests among schools is due to incompetent officials, poor management by coaches and executives, and to troubles in the towns independent of the schools. About fifty per cent of the principals require squad members to have a physical examination. Two-thirds of the schools report their athletic programs self-supporting. The rankings of objectives in athletics by the three hundred ten schools studied are as follows: (1) Fair play in competition; (2) Doing one's best; (3) General health; (4) Motivating scholarship; (5) Holding pupils in school; (6) Winning games; (7) Drawing pupils to school; (8) Contribution of moral stamina; (9) Contribution to social stamina.

LEKER, CHARLES A. "*Guessing in True-False Tests*," School Review, XXXVI (December, 1928), 768-70.

Forty juniors and seniors in the Polytechnic Institute of Porto Rico were given a test made up of fifty true-false statements, none of which the students knew well enough to mark with assurance. Some of the students showed noticeable tendencies to mark the statements positive. The five students with the most positive tendencies made forty-two and eight, thirty-eight and twelve, thirty-seven and thirteen, thirty-four and sixteen, and thirty-four and sixteen true and false markings, respectively. Others showed tendencies to mark most of the statements negative, five students making seventeen and thirty-three, eighteen and thirty-two, nineteen and thirty-one, twenty and thirty, and twenty-one and twenty-nine true and false markings, respectively. To prove more conclusively the tendencies indicated in this test, a record was kept of the statements the students marked incorrectly in five successive review tests in psychology, the result of which showed that there are positive and negative tendencies in different individuals. In the review tests there was a total of 103 true statements and 102 false statements. Some conclusions from this investigation are that the guessing done

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by students is predetermined by predisposing tendencies within the individual. The law of chance does not operate freely. Students differ in their tendencies to mark statements true or false, and there is a strong tendency to mark statements true.

OSGOOD, ELLEN L. "*Experimenting with the High-School Misfit*," School Review, XXXVI (December, 1928), 779-86.

Each term from six to seven hundred first-term pupils and approximately three hundred junior high school pupils enter the Julia Richman High School, New York City, and at graduation time a class of only two hundred fifty are awarded diplomas, according to the first study of elimination made. Failure in subjects is the most frequent cause of leaving school. A special curriculum was organized to meet this situation. Girls with low I.Q.'s who are failing two or more major subjects are invited to transfer to this curriculum the first semester. This curriculum follows the regular course of study in requiring four years of English, three years of social science, and two years of general science, with electives in two other fields. No regents' examinations are required, however, and office machines, selling, or sewing are offered in place of stenography and bookkeeping. The basic objectives of this curriculum are character, worthy home membership, political activity, and preparation for a vocation. Much of the material used in the classes is drawn from actual experiences. Beginning in the last half of the second year, pupils work in business houses alternate weeks as co-operatives. After several terms of experimentation, an attempt to measure results was made. The comparative progress of a control group of eighty-seven pupils who remained in the regular curriculum and of a special group of thirty-six pupils was studied. At the end of one year and a half, 23% of the control group and 36% of the special group were in school. The special group showed improvement in capitalization (1 point), punctuation (4 points), grammar (6 points). The control group showed no improvement in capitalization and punctuation and only 4 points in grammar. Neither group showed improvement in reading and arithmetic. The special group is making better adjustments to actual situations, according to reports from firms employing girls from both groups.

HUNT, H. S. "*A Comparison of Two Methods of School Financing*," School Board Journal, LXXVII (November, 1928), 46-47.

A comparison of the "Bonding Plan" and the "Pay-As-You-Go Plan" of school financing shows a distinct advantage in favor of the former. Contrary to the popular notion, it is really cheaper in the long run to issue bonds over a reasonable period of time than to collect sufficient tax money prior to construction. This difference in cost is due to the fact that the rate of bond interest is lower than the rate the average tax payer can earn on his money. The calculations and tables show that over a period of thirty years every \$1,000 of bonds issued would mean an ultimate expenditure of \$5,130.55.

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These ingenious and interesting calculations and comparisons serve to emphasize the fact that whichever plan of financing is used the ultimate cost to the tax payer is several times the original cost, and that all expense should be avoided which is not entirely justified by the benefits to be derived.

HORRALL, A. H. "*Department Heads in Secondary Schools*," School Board Journal, LXXVII (November, 1928), 59.

Information concerning department heads was gathered from 34 communities in California, Oregon, Washington, Idaho, and Arizona. There was found to be some variation in the amount of teaching done by department heads, but in the great majority of cases one less period of teaching service was required. Additional salary ranged from no extra pay to \$800 and the median increase was \$200 above the regular salary schedule. A large majority of department heads were teaching third and fourth year classes: nearly three times as many teaching fourth year classes as were teaching first year classes. This is made the basis of a plea for stronger teachers in the first two years of high-school work, and for proper attention to the "entering product" as well as the "graduating product."

BOLTON, FREDERICK and BIBB, THOMAS W. "*Shall We Elect or Appoint the County Superintendent?*" The Nation's Schools, III (February, 1929), 21-6.

The county superintendent of schools is the key man in the rural-school situation. He needs to be well trained in educational administration and possess qualities of leadership which will enable him to carry out constructive policies in the county districts. Under the present system by which superintendents are elected by the people or chosen by a political group, efficient, trained men are very seldom chosen for the office and the country child suffers. The investigation, undertaken by the University of Washington indicates that those counties in which the superintendent is appointed, preferably by a non-partisan board, have better schools along more progressive lines than those counties having politically selected superintendents.

EBY, FREDERICK. "*Should the Junior College Unite With the Senior High School?*" The Nation's Schools, III (February, 1929), 33-8.

The present four-year college plan is a very imperfect form without justification in many respects. It assumes that youth of freshmen age are capable of unlimited wisdom of choice in course selection and have self control sufficient to keep them at their tasks without supervision. As a matter of fact students of the first two college years are much closer in their interests, mental attitudes, and emotional reactions to high-school seniors than to the vocationally conscious upper classmen of college.

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The 6-4-4 plan is generally accepted by educators as desirable but will be successful only when it is fully accepted by the members of the teaching profession at large. The four-year public college, beginning with the 11th year of school must be organized as a separate unit with its own curriculum, building, and faculty. This may be difficult to establish in some communities, especially small ones, but it is destined to become eventually the recognized form.

WYNKOOP, JOHN B. "*Coordinating the Business Management and the Superintendency,*" School Executives Magazine, XLVIII (January, 1929), 198-200.

Mr. Wynkoop concedes the intrinsic one-ness of the school system, but insists that the business manager shall be coordinate with the superintendent. The following list indicates his duties: (1) To have charge of all employees in the non-educational department of the administration; (2) Control payrolls, audits, accounts; (3) To act as custodian of contracts, titles, records of the board; (4) To purchase and distribute supplies, to prepare estimates, and receive bids; (5) Employ engineers and janitors, purchase fuel, and keep operating costs at minimum; (6) Maintain buildings, equipment, grounds; (7) Cooperate with architect, and insist on efficiency. Further duties (1) To have charge of insurance; (2) To manage lunchrooms; (3) To transport school children; (4) To handle bond issues.

RYAN, H. H. "*The How of Ability Grouping,*" School Executives Magazine, XLVIII (February, 1929), 243-45.

The idea of ability grouping has been generally accepted, especially in junior high schools. The question now is, the "how," and the next question is "what then". Grouping on the basis of intelligence tests alone is unsatisfactory. Five of the six factors of maturity suggested by Baldwin, namely, the chronological, mental, educational, anatomical, and social ages are used. Nine items were made use of, and the results are shown in a "profile" compared with a norm. Assuming a group of 400, to be assigned to ten groups, a suggested distribution is: One A group to do three years of work in two; five B groups to do three years' work in two and one-half; two C groups, one of boys and one of girls; two C groups, unsegregated. The author claims that results justify the time and effort required.

MOUNT, JOHN S. "*Who Is the Business Manager, Legally?*" School Executives Magazine, XLVIII (February, 1929), 258-60.

Expansion of school systems has required division of responsibility. In small systems the secretary or clerk is frequently also business manager, but this is impossible in large systems. Title and status of business manager vary with the state. Minneapolis has a "business superintendent"; Muncie, Indiana, a "business director"; Sioux City, a "secretary and business agent"; the position of "executive manager" was declared illegal in New York; Richmond, Va.,

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has a "purchasing agent"; some Ohio cities have an "assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs"; Chicago has a business manager, whose duties are defined by statute; Pennsylvania places these duties upon the secretary of the board; Minnesota has three types of officials, depending upon the charter of the school; Texas authorizes "the employment of a secretary at a salary not to exceed five dollars per month"; New Jersey's business manager has a seat on the board, but no vote. The question is well taken—who is the business manager, legally?

HARBESON, JOHN W. "*The 6-4-4 Plan of School Organization With Special Reference to Its Application in the city of Pasadena.*" California Quarterly of Secondary Education, IV (October, 1928), 45-50.

In 1916 the 8-4 plan of organization in Pasadena was changed to the 6-3-3 plan. In 1924 the junior college was authorized and the system was organized on the 6-4-4 plan. The last two years of high school and two years of junior college are combined in one organization. The work of the junior college and the high school seems to be best articulated by the 6-4-4 plan. The organization is able to attract the best trained teachers and administrators, and can furnish better training and guidance than the ordinary high school. Duplication is avoided and the work of the high school is carried over into the college. Many students are retained in school through interest and receive a two-year college training, who would otherwise drop out of school at the end of the high-school course.

The 6-4-4 plan is more economical from the standpoint of buildings and grounds. Instead of having three separate buildings for the junior high school, senior high school, and junior college; one building will house the junior high school and one the four years of junior college.

In the city of Pasadena the 6-4-4 plan is working very satisfactory to the students, to the administrators, and to the citizens.

KOOS, LEONARD V. "*Secondary Education in California.*" California Quarterly of Secondary Education, IV (October, 1928), 73-81.

This article is a brief report of a preliminary survey of secondary education in California. The report will be used as a foundation for the more comprehensive investigations to be made later. The survey covers the following points: 1. Recent rapid education developments in California. 2. Types of districts schools maintained. 3. Higher education as it relates to secondary education. 4. The student body. 5. The curriculum. 6. The teaching staff. 7. Financial issues.

The growth and popularization of education in California has produced many problems. The percentage of pupils of high-school age enrolled in high-schools has increased from 4.1% in 1890 to 74.8% in 1926.

The district organization in California making the Junior and Senior High School independent of each other produces problems not only of duplication of taxation, but of teaching and in some cases lack of cooperation between boards of education.

Elimination is still considerable even though the degree of popularization is large. An attempt is made to adjust the curriculum to the varying types of districts. The standards for teachers' credentials is relatively high. There is a marked over-supply of teachers and many high-school teachers are taking Junior High School positions. The financial problems are similar to those throughout the country although the actual wealth of California is high as compared with other states.

BOOK NOTICES OF ACCESSIONS

GENEVIEVE DARLINGTON

CUBBERLEY, HAZEL J. *Field Hockey Analyzed for Instructor and Player*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1928. Pp. 188. \$2.00. Athletics for Women Series.

Written with a desire to present a method by which field hockey may be incorporated into the sports program, with adaptations necessary for the American situation, in such a way as to fulfill not only the aim of physical education but of general education as well. Although primarily for the instructor, it may be comprehended by the novice.

PERRIN, FLEMING ALLEN CLAY, and KLEIN, DAVID BALLIN. *Psychology, its Methods and Principles*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1928. Pp. 387. \$2.25.

Psychology is presented here as the science of adaptive behavior. Stress is placed upon the scientific methods by means of which adaptive behavior is investigated in the psychological laboratory.

PYLE, WILLIAM HENRY. *The Psychology of Learning; an Advanced Text in Educational Psychology*. Revised and enlarged. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1928. Pp. 441. \$2.32.

In this new edition the text has been revised in the light of recent experimental work. A short chapter on the psychology of special subjects has been added and also a chapter on the theory of learning. The chief addition is the incorporation of the principles and their illustrative application. There is a bibliography of 25 pages.

ORLEANS, JACOB S., and SEALY, GLENN A. *Objective Tests*. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Co., 1928. Pp. 373. \$2.20.

Material and procedures needed for the construction of objective tests and the statistical treatment of the test scores will be found

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in this book. It can be used for teachers' reading circles and to provide the training necessary for carrying on a testing program in any school system. Problems and exercises and a great deal of data are provided as practice material.

DEAM, THOMAS M., and BEAR, OLIVE M. *Socializing the Pupil Through Extra-Curricular Activities*. Chicago: B. H. Sanborn & Co., 1928. Pp. 324. \$1.76.

The authors have rendered an important service by directing attention to the functional values of the various types of extra-class activities found in modern secondary schools. There is a bibliography of 31 pages.

MILLER, EDWIN L. *New English Composition. Book I.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928. Pp. 200. \$.96.

First in a series of four, each of which has been planned to cover one stage in the composition work of the secondary school course, this book may be used during the eighth, ninth or tenth year of school. It is organized on a project-problem plan.

GOOD, CARTER V. *How To Do Research in Education; a Handbook for the Graduate Student, Research Worker, and Public-School Investigator*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1928. Pp. 298. \$2.60.

This handbook of the literature of educational research may prove of service to the individual graduate or senior-college student, the research worker and investigator, the seminar group in education, and others in any way concerned with the conducting and reporting of research or the publication of educational writings. A bibliography of four pages is included.

MONTGOMERY, KATHERINE W. *Volley Ball for Women*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1928. Pp. 90. \$1.60. Athletics for Women Series.

Planned to bring the game into general popularity as a major sport for college women. The material has been tried out and found successful with college girls.

LOWMAN, CHARLES LEROY, COLESTOCK, CLAIRE, and COOPER, HAZEL. *Corrective Physical Education for Groups, a Text Book of Organization, Theory, and Practice*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1928. Pp. 521. \$4.50.

Presented as a theoretical and practical guide for teachers in the field, and students in training for physical education. The major object has been to call attention to certain schedules of safe exercises, together with suggestions as to administration and organization of corrective class work and to give a reasonable amount of theory to show the authors' reasons for the same.

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STAFFORD, GEORGE T. *Preventive and Corrective Physical Education.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1928. Pp. 328. \$3.00.

The author, Director of the Department of Corrective and Remedial Physical Education at the University of Illinois, hopes that this book will serve as a guide for physical educators, especially those who graduated from colleges of physical education before corrective work was given, and further, that it will be a source of information to parents, teachers, nurses, doctors and all other health workers who are interested in the problem of the physically defective individual.

WINSLOW, LEON LOYAL. *Organization and Teaching of Art; a Program for Art Education in the Schools.* Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1928. Pp. 243. \$2.30.

With the practical objectives of the normal art course in mind, the author presents a textbook in methods, for use in normal art courses, which more fully meets the present needs. In this second edition he has outlined both for the elementary and the junior high school a working program which should enable the student to keep constantly in mind the relationship which each particular unit of instruction bears to the curriculum as a whole.

HAGGERTY, MELVIN E., and SMITH, DORA V. *Reading and Literature. Book Three.* Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Co., 1928. Pp. 629. \$1.44.

Selections from some of the best of the time-tested, as well as some modern, writings of compelling interest and value to boys and girls of junior high school age.

KIMBALL, REGINALD STEVENS. *Current-Events Instruction, a Text-book of Principles and Plans, with Chapters by Paul Klapper, Daniel C. Knowlton, Roy W. Hatch, and Leonard O. Packard.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin & Co., 1929. Pp. 310. \$2.00. Riverside Textbooks in Education.

A textbook for teachers designed to show how the new instruction may and should be given, and setting forth the goals for such instruction. Directions for the finding and using of current material are given.

LEIGH, RANDOLPH. *Oratory, a Handbook for Participants in the National Oratorical Contest, Containing the Winning Orations of Each Year.* New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1927. Pp. 130. \$1.50.

The object of the Contest is "to increase interest in and respect for the Constitution of the United States."

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SCHAPIRO, J. SALWYN and MORRIS, RICHARD B. *Civilization in Europe. Part I. Ancient and Modern Times. Part II. Modern Times in Europe.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin & Co., 1928. Pp. 738. \$2.20.

In part I Mr. Morris presents the essential elements in ancient and medieval history in 171 pages. Part II is Mr. Schapiro's *Modern Times in Europe*, issued in 1926.

SCHORLING, RALEIGH and CLARK, JOHN R. *Modern Algebra; First Course.* Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Co., 1929. Pp. 391. \$1.36.

A new edition of their *Modern Algebra*: Ninth School Year.

SCHORLING, RALEIGH, CLARK, JOHN R. and LINDELL, SELMA A. *Modern Algebra: Second Course.* Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Co., 1929. Pp. 464. \$1.60.

This follows either the Schorling-Clark *Modern Algebra: Ninth School Year* or the slightly more difficult volume, *Modern Algebra: First Course*. It is planned to meet the demands of the "major requirement" of the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements and of the most recent requirements of the principal colleges and of the College Entrance Examination Board.

THE NATIONAL JUNIOR HONOR SOCIETY

In response to a widespread demand the National Council of the National Honor Society has established The National Junior Honor Society. The constitution follows:

CONSTITUTION OF THE NATIONAL JUNIOR HONOR SOCIETY

ARTICLE I

NAME AND PURPOSE

Section 1. The name of this organization shall be the National Junior Honor Society of secondary schools.

Section 2. The purpose of this society shall be: (1) to create an enthusiasm for superior scholarship; (2) to stimulate a desire to serve faithfully one's school and community; (3) to promote trustworthy leadership and loyal pupil citizenship; and (4) to develop exemplary qualities of character in the pupils of American schools of junior high school level.

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ARTICLE II

GENERAL CONTROL

Section 1. The general control of the society shall be vested in the National Council of the National Honor Society of Secondary Schools of which the secretary of the National Department of secondary-school principals is also secretary and a member ex-officio.

Section 2. The National Council shall each year nominate at least two junior high school principals one of which shall be elected to serve for a three year term on the National Council.

ARTICLE III

LOCAL SOCIETIES

Section 1. These societies shall be chapters within junior or senior high school organizations having grades seven, eight, nine, or ten. Only schools of good standing will be granted a charter.

Section 2. Membership in the National Junior Honor Society will have no relation to membership in the National Honor Society. Membership in the former in no wise insures membership in the latter.

Section 3. A charter of admission to the National Junior Honor Society will be issued only after the National Council has approved its constitution.

Section 4. Each chapter wishing to continue its membership—the National Junior Honor Society shall conform to all rules made by the National Council.

ARTICLE IV

CERTIFICATES AND EMBLEMS

Section 1. The secretary of the National Council shall issue to all new members of local chapters a uniform copyrighted membership certificate prepared by the National Council.

Section 2. The patented uniform emblem may be secured from the secretary of the National Council by chapters desiring it.

Section 3. The distribution of certificates and emblems shall be controlled exclusively by the secretary of the National Council. All certificates shall be sent C. O. D. to the principal of the school. Emblems will be sent C. O. D. to chapter members certified by the principal.

ARTICLE V

DUES

Section 1. A charter fee of \$5.00 shall be deposited with the secretary of the National Council at the same time that a petition

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for a charter is filed. In the event that a charter is not granted the deposit will be returned (to the petitioning school).

ARTICLE VI
MEMBERSHIP

Section 1. To be eligible for membership a pupil must have spent at least one year in the school electing such pupil. *Election* however may take place at the close of his second semester.

Section 2. Membership in any chapter shall be based on scholarship, school citizenship, service, leadership, and character.

Section 3. The *initial election* of members to a newly installed chapter of the National Junior Honor Society shall be from among the pupils who rank in the upper ten per cent in scholarship. The level of scholastic achievement at or above which the upper ten percent of the pupils are found shall become for the pupils of that school the required scholastic achievement for admission to candidacy for membership in the society. The scholastic achievement standard of that school thereafter remains constant and all students who can rise in scholarship to or above the initial upper ten per cent scholastic level of that school are to be admitted to candidacy for election to membership.

Section 4. Having been admitted to candidacy for membership, those pupils whose personal records reveal faithful school service, trustworthy leadership, loyal citizenship and exemplary character shall be admitted to membership. Pupils whose school records reveal negative and unreliable qualities of service, leadership, citizenship or character shall not be elected to membership in the society.

Section 5. Any pupil after having been elected to the society who falls below the initial upper ten per cent scholastic standard of his school or who reveals unworthy qualities of citizenship, service, leadership or character shall forfeit his membership in the society. His membership certificate and emblem shall be returned to the principal, and a report made by the principal to the secretary of the National Council.

ARTICLE VII
ELECTORS

Section 1. Election of members for each chapter shall be by the principal and a committee of three to five faculty members appointed by him. To assist the election committee each faculty member shall vote on all candidates known to them by listing either the positive or negative qualities of service, leadership, citizenship and character. Final authority in election shall however rest with the judgment of the principal and the election committee.

ARTICLE VIII

INDUCTION OF MEMBERS

Section 1. Members shall be inducted into the society in a school assembly with as impressive and appropriate ceremonies as possible.

ARTICLE IX

OFFICERS

Section 1. The officers of each chapter shall be a president, vice president, secretary, and treasurer.

Section 2. The term of office shall be for one year and officers shall not succeed themselves.

Section 3. The secretary shall with the approval of the principal certify to the secretary of the National Council the names of those elected to membership.

ARTICLE X

FACULTY SUPERVISION

Section 1. All meetings shall be held with the approval of the principal or some faculty member approved by the principal.

Section 2. The activities of the chapter shall be subject to the approval of the principal.

ARTICLE XI

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Section 1. The executive committee of the chapter shall consist of the officers of the chapter and the faculty sponsor.

Section 2. The executive committee of the chapter shall plan the meetings and have general charge of business affairs, but any action of the executive committee shall be subject to review by the chapter.

ARTICLE XII

AMENDMENTS

Section 1. This constitution of the National Junior Honor Society may be amended at any meeting of the National Council.

GROUP INSURANCE FOR MEMBERS

It is a pleasure to announce that the Executive Committee has approved a plan of group insurance that offers coverage to the members at exceedingly low cost. Group insurance is usually considered as applicable to factory employees or workers for some great corporation. By a special arrangement with the Prudential Life Insurance Company an unusual opportunity of life insurance at low prices is offered to members of the Department. The salient features of the plan are:

1. *Low premium.*
2. *No medical examination.*
3. *Total and permanent disability benefits.* If an insured member becomes totally and permanently disabled, his insurance will be paid in a lump sum or in installments. Total and permanent disability is loss of both legs or of both arms or of an arm and a leg, or the sight of both eyes. Insanity, cancer, and consumption are also on the list.
4. *Conversion privilege.* When an insured member leaves the profession, he may convert his group policy into any of the policies (except term insurance) customarily issued by the insurance company for the same amount at the current rates of the attained age. Conversion must take place within thirty-one days to avoid medical examination. As long as one is in the teaching profession, whether principal or teacher, he may insure.
5. *Age limit of eighty years.*
6. *Individual certificates.* These show rights of insured, amount, and beneficiary.
7. *Current protection.* There are no savings, accumulation, or paid-up features. Insurance is for one year at a time, and is renewable each year, at the option of the insured member. Theoretically the premium steps up each year with the age of the insured member. The annual dividends will, no doubt, make the premium less rather than more.
8. *An insurance company of first rank,* the Prudential Life Insurance Company.

The amount of insurance a member must take depends on his annual salary. The cost of his insurance is determined by his age. The amount of insurance and the cost may be ascertained from the tables below.

If a member's annual salary is \$2,200 and his age is 27, his insurance must be \$2,000 and his annual premium will be \$14.20.

If one's salary is \$3,200 and his age is 39, his insurance must be \$3,000 and his annual premium will be \$25.80.

SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION ABSTRACTS

If one's salary is increased so as to move him to a higher class, he must take insurance the next year according to his class as determined by his salary.

This plan will become operative as soon as a certain percentage of the members make application. Because of dividends expected at the end of the first year, the rates will, no doubt, be lower the second year. The dividends for our group depend on the deaths in our group. Each group is given separate consideration in the matter of dividends. The more who insure, the lower the rates next year. The cost of this insurance is surprisingly low. Therefore I hope the members will take advantage of this unusual opportunity.

Present this opportunity to your assistant principal, deans, advisers, heads of departments, and others who ought to be interested in the Department and the literature it publishes.

May I urge you to give this offer most prompt attention?

Send information card to me today. Do it *Now*.

If this plan is unsatisfactory to you, please write me at once your adverse criticism.

Dues for the year must be paid before insurance is valid. Dues are two dollars a year.

In filling the card, state salary in blank, "Employment dates from."

Send for additional cards, if needed.

Dues (\$2.00) if unpaid for 1929, should accompany application.

Notice will be sent when premium is due.

H. V. CHURCH, *Executive Secretary*
Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois,
or, 3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn,
Illinois.

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

GROUP LIFE INSURANCE

Annual Rates per \$1,000

AGE	PREMIUM	AGE	PREMIUM
25.....	\$ 7.00	48.....	\$13.05
26.....	7.05	49.....	13.90
27.....	7.10	50.....	14.80
28.....	7.15	51.....	15.80
29.....	7.20	52.....	16.90
30.....	7.25	53.....	18.15
31.....	7.30	54.....	19.50
32.....	7.40	55.....	20.90
33.....	7.50	56.....	22.50
34.....	7.65	57.....	24.25
35.....	7.80	58.....	26.10
36.....	7.95	59.....	28.15
37.....	8.15	60.....	30.40
38.....	8.35	61.....	32.90
39.....	8.60	62.....	35.50
40.....	8.90	63.....	38.40
41.....	9.20	64.....	41.50
42.....	9.60	65.....	44.90
43.....	10.00	66.....	48.50
44.....	10.50	67.....	52.50
45.....	11.10	68.....	56.80
46.....	11.65	69.....	61.40
47.....	12.30	70.....	66.40

For rates over 70 years, write for information.

CLASSES

Salary	Insurance
A—Up to \$2,000.....	\$1,000
B—\$2,001 to 3,000.....	2,000
C— 3,001 to 3,750.....	3,000
D— 3,751 to 4,999.....	4,000
E— 5,000 up	5,000

STANDARD HIGH-SCHOOL PERSONAL RECORD
BLANKS

The standard record forms which were approved by the Department of Secondary-School Principals at the meeting at Boston are now printed on cardboard suitable for vertical filing systems. This card is especially designed for small and medium sized high schools. If there is sufficient demand, the 8½" x 11" form will also be printed on cardboard and on heavy bond paper with a margin in the border punched for use in loose leaf binders.

Space is provided on these blanks for scholarship records for five years. The extra year is included for pupils of four-year high schools who may desire to do graduate work. It is recommended that six year junior-senior high schools use separate cards for the records of the junior and of the senior schools.

When the guidance information called for in the lower right hand corner seems to be of a changeable nature, as would often be true of such items as "Vocational Preference," it is suggested that it be written in pencil so that it can be erased and changed when necessary.

The schedule of prices, postpaid, follows:

Zones	100	200	500	1000
1 and 2	\$1.35	\$2.65	\$4.85	\$8.85
3	1.38	2.70	4.95	9.00
4	1.40	2.75	5.05	9.15
5	1.42	2.80	5.15	9.35
6	1.45	2.85	5.30	9.55
7	1.48	2.90	5.40	9.75
8	1.50	2.95	5.50	10.00

The cards will be shipped on receipt of price, or C. O. D.

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

SPECIAL ANNOUNCEMENT—CERTIFICATES OF
RECOMMENDATION

Hitherto the Certificates of Recommendation have been sent to the members free of charge. The demand for the Certificates is so great that the printing and mailing charges have become a burden to the treasurer. It is reasonable that boards of education should bear the expense of these supplies. The Executive Committee has agreed to furnish the Certificates, postpaid, at the following prices:

Mailing from Chicago	100	200	300	400	500	1000
1st zone	\$.80	\$ 1.50	\$ 2.20	\$ 2.80	\$ 3.40	\$ 6.00
2nd " "	.80	1.50	2.20	2.80	3.45	6.10
3rd " "	.85	1.55	2.25	2.85	3.50	6.20
4th " "	.85	1.60	2.30	3.00	3.75	6.45
5th " "	.90	1.65	2.40	3.05	3.90	6.60
6th " "	.90	1.70	2.45	3.15	4.00	6.80
7th " "	.95	1.75	2.55	3.25	4.15	7.00
8th " "	1.00	1.80	2.60	3.35	4.25	7.20

The blanks will be mailed on receipt of price, or C. O. D.

SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION ABSTRACTS

ADDRESSES

of

**PUBLISHERS WHO HAVE CONTRIBUTED TO
THIS BULLETIN**

American Book Company
330 East Twenty-second Street
Chicago

D. Appleton and Company
29 West Thirty-second Street
New York City

A. S. Barnes and Company
7 West Forty-fifth Street
New York City

Thomas Y. Crowell Company
387 Fourth Avenue
New York City

Ginn and Company
15 Ashburton Place
Boston, Massachusetts

Henry Holt and Company
2626 Prairie Avenue
Chicago

Houghton Mifflin Company
2 Park Street
Boston, Massachusetts

G. P. Putnam's Sons
2 West Forty-fifth Street
New York City

B. H. Sanborn and Company
221 East Culberton
Chicago

Warwick and York
10 East Center Street
Baltimore, Maryland

World Book Company
Yonkers-on-Hudson
New York

